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8-18 August 1956
Bangkok, Thailand

DEVELOPMENT OF CITIES AND CITY PLANNING IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA[1/]

by
the National Government of the Republic of China

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1/ Originally submitted in Chinese but translated by the ECAFE Secretariat.

The city is the centre of national economy and military security. It is the nerve centre of politics and the source of culture. Having congregated in a group, people were able to exchange their goods; having built fortresses or city walls, they were able to protect themselves against aggression; having developed capital cities, they were able to have political life; having leisure to enjoy their living, they were able to create a brilliant culture. A city, whether economic, strategic, political or cultural in character, or grown out of a small village or built up from previously devised plans, owes its development generally to the demands of society and people for a peaceful and prosperous living. This is true in China as in all other countries of the world.

I. DEVELOPMENT OF CITIES IN ANCIENT CHINA

Although China is predominantly an agricultural country, much attention was always paid to problems concerning the development of cities. As long ago as 2,000 years, China already had some cities of considerable size. During the Chin and Han dynasties (about the third century), the planning of cities on a big scale was well developed. For example, the city of Nanking was built in the early years of Ming dynasty (about the fourteenth century) on a grand scale, having a city wall of 96 Li (1 Li =0.576 km) in length, with 13 gates. Granite stones were used for the foundation and the wall itself was built of big bricks and surfaced with straw-bound lime plaster. Its height reached as much as 60 feet, averaging around 40 feet. Its width at the top was 25 feet, or even 45 feet at certain points. The city was divided into districts, namely: political, commercial, residential, military, cultural and scenic. Here we see applied the principle of zoning for the construction of a city. The development of cities in ancient China was based more on political considerations, such as the need of a capital for the ruling dynasty or a centre for political life, rather than on basically economic, transportation, military or cultural factors.

/II. DEVELOPMENT

II. DEVELOPMENT OF CITIES IN MODERN CHINA

Prior to the establishment of the Republic of China, cities in China were relics of old days, with the exception of some coastal ports like Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Dairen, Amoy, Kiukiang, Hankow, Canton, Wuchow, Foochow, Wenchow, Ningpo and Hangchow, whose early development had resulted from foreign trade. In view of the need to modernize China's old-fashioned cities, the Chinese Government, after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war, promulgated on 8 June 1939 "Rules for municipal planning". These rules, containing 32 articles in all, were based on the existing plans of municipal development in China and on the principles of municipal planning in western countries. Article 3 specified that planning of municipalities in the following categories should be undertaken as soon as possible; (1) cities, (2) existing commercial ports (3) provincial capitals, (4) towns with a population of over 100,000 each, and (5) other places selected by the Central Government. Article 4 specified that planning of ruined municipalities should be undertaken within six months after the cessation of hostilities. Article 10 specificed that consideration should be given to the following: (1) existing conditions of the city, (2) zoning, (3) land use, (4) public land, (5) system of streets and waterways, (6) public utilities, drainage and sewerage system, (7) procedure for implementation, (8) funds, (9) others.

"Outlines of the planning for construction of cities" and "Rules of construction" were announced respectively on 21 September 1940 and 21 September 1944, for the purpose of strengthening control over the construction of buildings. Again, on 1 November 1945 "Rules of construction applicable to cities and towns in restored areas", were issued, with particular emphasis on the reconstruction of ruined towns and cities. Thus, the legislation relating to city planning had been completed. With respect to the organizational aspects of municipal planning, a Department of Construction was established in the Ministry of Interior of the Central Government in July 1942. This department was the highest supervisory body in charge of the planning of municipalities. In various cities under the jurisdiction of the Executive Yuan, Bureaux of Public Works have been set up since 1927. In provincial governments, there is a section in the Department of Reconstruction responsible for municipal planning work. Since the establishment of

/these various

these various offices in the central, provincial and municipal governments, reconstruction work was progressing. Plans for the de-population of over-sized cities, rehabilitation and reconstruction of war-torn cities, re-modelling of old cities, and building of new cities were being implemented.

In mainland China during 1942-49, there were 31 cities for which schemes of municipal development had been made. They were Shanghai, Nanking, Tsingtao, Peiping, Tientsin, Changchun, Mukden (Shengyang), Sian, Chungking, Wuhan, Canton, Lienyun, Hsuchow, Pengpo, Hangchow, Nanchang, Changsha, Hengyang, Chengtu, Foochow, Amoy, Tsamkong, Kweilin, Nanning, Liuchow, Wuchow, Hsinhsiang, Chengchow, Paotow, Kunming and Sichang. There were seventy places where plans for city construction had been formulated, including 7 in Anhwei province, 2 in Chekiang province, 3 in Kiangsi province, 15 in Hupeh province, 12 in Hunan province, 3 in Shensi province, 5 in Kwangsi province, 2 in Sikang province, 1 in Kweichow province, 1 in Kansu province and 3 in Kiangsu Province. During this period 1942-49, many cities were not developed under normal conditions due to the Sino-Japanese war and internal conflict; their abnormal growth was attributable mainly to political and military factors such as the removal of national capital and concentration of refugees. For instance, the city of Chungking, prior to the removal of the capital there, had a population of 475,968 and an area of 46.75 km^2 in 1937. But after the removal of the capital, on account of a large influx of government workers and military personnel and their dependants into the city, population had increased to 702,387 in 1941. Up to May 1945, the population had increased to 1,266,464 and the area of the city had expanded to 307.1731 km^2. But, immediately after the removal of the capital back to Nanking, the population of Chungking suddenly dropped to 985,673. Taking another case, the population of the city of Hsuchow in Kiangsu province increased suddenly from 180,000 in 1945 to 300,000 in early 1948, as a result of the influx of a large number of refugees from areas held by the Communists.

Because of the abnormal growth of cities, there were no means to devise well-conceived plans in advance and establish an equilibrium between population growth and land utilization. Consequently, the differences in the population density of various districts within a city became very great. For instance, in the city of Peiping, according to 1946 statistics, the city area was 61.953 km^2 and the

/population

population 1,292,393, giving an average density of 21,000 persons per km^2. But in some densely populated sections of the city the density reached 55,000 per km^2. Again, in the city of Mukden, according to 1947 statistics, the area was 262 km^2, and the population 1,131,824. Hweikung was the most densely populated district in the city with an average space of 27.53 m^2 per person, while the lowest density was in Tungling district with an average of 2,920.20 m^2 per person. Thus the difference in density amongst the various districts in the city was nearly one hundred times. This abnormal growth has given rise to a variety of problems such as housing congestion, unauthorized construction, shortage of drinking water, traffic congestion, a soaring rise in land value, etc. In order to cope with these problems, the appropriate government departments concerned had drawn up plans on the administration of city land, availability of sources of finance, control of population, national and regional plans. Unfortunately, due to the Communist uprising and occupation of the mainland, these plans have not been implemented.

III. MUNICIPAL PLANNING IN TAIWAN PROVINCE

A. Topography, climate, population and economy of Taiwan Province

Taiwan is shaped like a spindle, located between longtitude 119° 18' to 122° 6'E. and between latitude 21° 45' to 25° 38' N., with a maximum length from south to north of 400 km and a maximum width from east to west of 150 km. Its total area is 35,961 km^2. There is a north-south mountain range lying towards the east of the island with the highest peak exceeding 3,000 m. This range bisects the province into two portions - the east and the west. On the east, topography is steep; on the west lies flat and fertile land. Rivers in the province are short, the longest being not more than 200 km. Flow is swift in the upper reaches, but less so when entering flat land; it is slow when reaching the sea.

The climate of the province is semi-tropical with long summers and short winters. Average annual temperature is 23°C. The province lies in the typhoon area of the Pacific. The typhoon generally visits the island from June to October. Annual average rainfall, around 2,500 mm, is unevenly distributed. Heavy rains are usually followed by floods. When the pressure is low, tropical cyclones

/sweep

sweep in with such violent force that they uproot trees, destroy houses and blow up dust and stones. Furthermore, the province lies in the earthquake zone of the Pacific, and is a constant victim of the disasters of quakes. Thus topography, climate and other natural conditions of Taiwan have a major influence over the growth and distribution of its cities.

The transport system of the province is likewise limited by its topography. There are, on the west coast, one highway and one railway running from south to north, with branch lines reaching various cities, towns, and villages. There are two highways running from east to west, one each at the northern and southern extremities. Survey work is now being conducted to build an east-west highway to run through the central part of the island.

The population in Taiwan province increases at an annual rate of over 30 per 1,000; its bulk is centred in the western coast, which has an average density as high as 2,000 persons per km^2. The cities and towns in the province are distributed according to the density of population. Since the western coast has a higher density, it has more cities and towns, with all the big cities; the tendency towards urbanization is more prominent there.

The main reason for urbanization is industrialization in the past twenty or thirty years, which has transformed the basically agricultural community into various types of cities and towns, such as sugar refining or mining towns, fishery ports, railway transportation centres, districts for newly established industries, places of scenic beauty and recreation, or satellite towns attached to some of the bigger cities. The various factors responsible for the growth of urbanization in the province in the past half century are, first, increase in agricultural production, which encouraged commercial activities, especially in the supply of daily necessities to the farmers; second, improvement of public health and sanitation which made living in a densily populated city possible, and third, improvement of transportation and communications which promoted the development of cities.

/The economy

The economy of the province was in the past predominantly dependent on agriculture. Industries were principally for the processing of its agricultural produce. However, in view of the recent increase in industrial production, industry has occupied a more important place than agriculture in the economy. From 1937 to 1951, the total population increased by 40 per cent from 5,610,000 to 7,870,000, while the number of persons gainfully engaged in industry increased by 163 per cent from 78,500 to 206,700. The total value of industrial production in the past had always been below that of agricultural production; since 1939, however, the former has surpassed the latter. For instance, in 1951 while the total value of agricultural production was NT$3,812 million the total value of industrial production rose to NT$4,690 million.

B. History of municipal planning in Taiwan province

Prior to the restoration of Taiwan to China, busy sections in Taipeh city were filthy and sanitary conditions were bad. Then, an Englishman by the name of W.K. Barton was invited to Taiwan to improve the sewerage system. This marked the beginning of municipal planning in Taiwan.

In 1897, the Taipeh City Planning Commission was established. In 1899, restrictions on the use of land within the planned areas of the city were imposed. In 1900, a scheme of city planning for Taipeh was announced. Since that year, similar schemes for other cities like Hsinchu, Chuanghwa, Chiayen, Keelung, Kaohsiung, Hwalien had been prepared. In 1910, in order to meet practical needs for overall planning, a commission to plan for the development of cities in the island was established as an investigating and advisory body. Henceforth, the development of cities has been progressing. Within a period of 25 years, the plans for developing the two cities of Tainan and Pingtung and the 17 towns were mapped out.

After the disastrous earthquake of Taiwan in 1935, the plan for the development of 19 affected areas in the two hsien (counties) of Hsinchu and Taichung were announced. In the following year, an ordinance for the development of

/municipalities

municipalities in Taiwan was promulgated, together with rules governing its implementation. Also, the government indicated the sources of finance to subsidize city planning activities and issued regulations concerning the use of buildings, with a view to providing a guide to various hsien and cities in their planning activities. At the same time new bodies in charge of municipal planning were set up and a "Taiwan Municipal Planning Commission" was established to take the place of the 1910 commission to plan for the development of cities in Taiwan. At the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese war in 1937, while Japan was preparing for its southern advance, Taiwan's industrial development was greatly accelerated, with consequent growth of industrial cities. The building of the city of Hsinkao, the expansion of Kaohsiung city and the completion of municipal planning for Kangshan, Chienshan, Tungkang and Fongshan were evidences of such growth during this period. In 1945, there were 70 cities and towns which had development plans. Although some of these plans might appear inadequate, their development had become fairly widespread.

Since 1945, the Chinese Government has reviewed the old municipal development schemes in the province, some of which were revised in order to comply with the requirement that municipal planning in Taiwan should follow the patterns of modern city planning in the light of existing conditions of the country. In addition, the government has announced municipal development plans for Neipoo, Tienmo, Chungho, Sanchung, Chengmei, Tzeling and Nankang.

C. Legislation relating to municipal planning

Before 1945, an ordinance for Taiwan municipal planning was promulgated, together with regulations for its enforcement. This ordinance delegated the power of municipal planning and implementation to the government, designated the sources of subsidies, fixed the obligation of beneficiaries to share the expenditure, and defined restrictions concerning the construction of building and re-zoning of land. The principal object of this ordinance were the correlation of city planning, restriction on building construction and re-zoning of land. Thus, the legislation relating to municipal development in Taiwan was fairly comprehensive.

/After 1945

After 1945, it was deemed necessary to revise the relevant laws in Taiwan province in order to conform to the various national laws already adopted, such as "Municipal Planning Law", "Construction Law", "Regulations concerning building construction in recovered areas", and "Regulations concerning the re-zoning of land". The regulations governing the enforcement of these national laws in the province are now in the process of promulgation and enforcement.

D. Municipal planning in the past

Municipal planning in Taiwan province from 1900 to 1945 had been completed for 70 different places in the island with varying population as follows : (1) Taipeh with 500,000 or more, (2) Kaohsiung, Taichung, Tainan, and Chiayen with 200,000 - 400,000 each, (3) Keelung, Hsinchu and Pingtung with 100,000 - 200,000 each, (4) Chuanghwa and Hwalien with 50,000 - 100,000 each, (5) Panchiao and twenty other towns with 20,000 - 50,000 each, (6) Suifang and 17 other places with 20,000 or less each, (7) 21 smaller towns with less than 5,000 each. Thus the planned distribution of urban population was fairly balanced, with proposed buildings and streets in the planned areas. Some outlines of municipal planning in the past are summarized briefly below :

(1) Saturated population - Saturated population is clearly defined in every city planning scheme. The estimation of the eventual saturation point of population is commonly based on the average rate of population increase by geometric and arithmetic progressions. The estimated average period in which the saturation point will be reached is generally taken at 20-30 years.

(2) Planned districts - The area of a planned district and its size vary according to the topography of mountains and rivers, transport facilities, economic conditions and population. The standard of planning in the past was for every person to occupy a space of 80 to 120 m^2, in some exceptional cases from 200 to 300 m^2. Also areas beyond the boundary lines of an administrative district might be included for planning in order to meet actual needs.

/(3) Zoning of land

(3) Zoning of land - The theory of land zoning had been applied rather dilatorily in the past. Among various cities, only Taipeh and Kaohsiung are divided into residential, commercial, industrial and unspecified districts. Restrictions are also placed on the uses, height and foundation of the buildings.

(4) System of roads - In the past, the grid system was principally used, and supplemented by radial branch roads. Principal roads were straight and wide, with both quick and slow traffic lanes marked. The width was between 30 to 50 metres for principal roads and 15 to 25 metres for secondary roads. Other roads were all over 6 metres wide. Because the characteristics of various roads were not clearly defined, branch roads for traffic beyond the city were often used as commercial roads in the city. Also, because of the use of the grid system there were too many roads running in the same direction, and it was difficult to distinguish between principal and secondary roads. Concentration of too many intersections at one point was another defect.

(5) Commercial districts - Generally, a commercial district was in the area of the old city where business had already developed and also in the radius of 30 metres, on both sides of a planned principal street. In cities where zoning of land was not applied, commercial districts were usually located along the sides of existing streets where shops were concentrated. As a result, commercial streets often became principal streets. There were also inadequate facilities for parking spaces in commercial areas. It is felt that once the number of motor cars is increased, parking difficulties are bound to arise.

(6) Residential district - Residential districts were usually located behind commercial districts without the application of the principle of planning by units such as "Lin - Li" (i.e. neighbourhood). Often schools and markets were too far from houses; school children had to pass through heavy traffic and the number and area of markets were usually insufficient and inadequate. Because of the present increased population, hawker stalls usually surround the markets, thus hindering order and creating nuisance. Streets in residential districts were laid out

/according to

according to the grid system. As a result, each street could be treated as a main road, thus disturbing peace and order in the area. There was a lack of playing grounds and various community facilities such as libraries, social halls and clinics in residential districts.

(7) Green land - In every city planning scheme there should be provision for parks and green land, with at least one park in each smaller city. In a bigger city, parks and green land should be interspersed and connected by roads.

(8) Public construction - In any conventional city planning scheme there should be space reserved for the erection of public buildings such as schools, government offices, hospitals, markets etc.

(9) Water supply - The development of water supply in Taiwan has a longer history than that of municipal planning. Many cities and towns had a water supply system before they had their city planning schemes. However, where there is a city planning scheme, there is not always a water supply system.

(10) Sewerage - Because of the high rainfall precipitation and scanty public sanitation facilities, open ditches were dug along streets to drain rain water. But a small quantity of dirty water from kitchens and toilets has often found its way into these ditches. In the city of Taipeh there is however a plan for modernizing the existing sewerage system, but it has only been partially executed.

(11) Sources of funds for city planning - Funds for city planning may be derived from three sources, namely subsidy from the higher authorities, about from one-half to one-fourth of the total city planning expenditure; charges imposed on beneficiaries, between one-half to one-third; and city planning tax, a surtax on local revenue.

/E. Municipal planning

b. Municipal planning in recent years

An inspection party for the reconstruction of municipalities, formed by the Ministry of Interior, toured the province in 1953 and 1954 and made suggestions with respect to the past and future planning of municipalities in Taiwan. Following the recommendations made by the Party many defects have been corrected in city planning schemes for Sanchung, Chungho, Chengmei, Nankang and Tzeling (all of which are near the city of Taipeh), as well as plans now being drafted for Peitow, Meinon, Hsintien, Musan and Meisan.

(1) Zoning of land - The zoning of land in areas where city planning has recently been completed should be clearly defined in accordance with the existing conditions and with the anticipated future development as well as well as the most favourable conditions of land use. The land should be zoned, not only into residential, commercial and industrial districts, but also into agricultural and "protected" districts. The agricultural district is to safeguard good farmland and limit overgrowth of the city area. The "protected" district is to safeguard scenic views, relics etc.

(2) Roads - In planning the main roads which are to be connected with the outer transportation line, consideration should be given to the distribution of communities in the area under planning. These roads mostly intersect the busy sections of the city, forming a radial system of thoroughfares, reducing or prohibiting the construction of buildings along both sides, or withdrawing building frontages, thus easing traffic congestion. The outer roads are linked with the inner roads, with which other streets are connected.

(3) Commercial district and civic centre - As regards civic centres which include commercial districts and community buildings, there are some specifically defined rules in various city planning schemes in recent years, with a view to making every planned municipality possess a centre of community life. Such centres are usually centrally located and can be reached by principal roads. If topographical conditions permit community centres

/may be

may be located within parks, and common forest areas. There should be adequate parking spaces in commercial districts. "Ribbon development" of commercial areas should be avoided as much as possible.

(4) Residential district - Residential districts should be planned according to the principle of "Lin-Li" units. These units could be separated by roads, streams, farmland or other natural divisions. There should be at least one public school, one park and one market in each unit with an area of at least 40 hectares or more. Main roads in the residential district should if possible follow the "spine" system, with branch roads leading to individual groups of houses. Roads passing between groups of houses may be of "Cul-de-sac" or concentric circle system.

(5) Green land - In most city development plans, it is customary to have the city area surrounded by farmlands in order to limit its unplanned growth. In addition, parks, green land, etc. should be spread over the city area. Hilly land along the streams should be reserved as protected areas, partly for the extension of farmland.

(6) Planned population - The planned population in various satellite towns of Taipeh like Banchung, Nankang, Chengmei is determined by their present population and future relationship to the growth of Taipeh city. Although the planning of these towns has not as yet been based on Taipeh as the centre, it has in reality been considered in this fashion.

(7) Development plan of the Ta-chai-chi river basin - The development plan of the Ta-chai-chi river basin is multiple-purpose, including the development of power, irrigation, flood control, harbour, transport, agriculture and forestry on a regional basis. This is the first regional planning scheme of its kind in the province. Industrial development and urbanization will ultimately follow the development of power and construction of a harbour. This regional plan should include the present cities of Taichung and Chuanghwa

/and the

and the future city of Hsintu for the planned Taichung Port. These three cities will form the tripartite centre of the region. Taichung will be the cultural and political centre, Chuanghwa the commercial centre and Hsintu the industrial centre and seaport. Taichung will have a planned population of 200,000, Chuanghwa 120,000 and Hsintu 200,000. Furthermore, it is contemplated to develop eleven industrial districts in the region, with a population of 30,000 - 100,000 each, after due consideration of many factors such as topography, transport and population.

F. Prospects

Municipal planning in Taiwan province has had a history of fifty years. Plans for the development of 81 places have been completed. Ordinances pertaining to municipal planning have been revised and there are buildings put up each year in various planned areas with notable results. In view of the recent growth of industries and general increase in population, there is a tendency towards urbanization. If there should be a balanced distribution of industry and population, a proper balance between agriculture and industry, and a reasonable standard of community life, municipal planning work would gradually become important.

IV. DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF CITIES

According to 1946 estimates, rural population (in villages below 2,500 persons) constitutes 71.9 per cent of the total population of China and urban population (in towns and cities above 2,500) 28.1 per cent. This proportion of urban population is low because industry and commerce had not been sufficiently developed. When the mainland is recovered, industry and commerce will be gradually developed and urban population undoubtedly increased. According to the 1953 report of the "Inspection Party for the Reconstruction of Municipalities in Taiwan province of the Ministry of Interior", the population of Taiwan province increased by 1,630,000 during the 5-year period from end-1947 to end-1952. Two-thirds of this increase, i.e. 1,080,000, was reported in Taipeh, Keelung, Taichung, Tainan and

/Kaohsiung,

Kaohsiung, (cities under the direct jurisdiction of the provincial government), and Hsinchu, Chuanghwa, Chiayen, Pingtung, Hwalien, Yenlan (cities under hsien authorities), and thirteen other towns like Taoyuan and Fengyuan. Judging from this rate of growth, urban population will increase soon after the recovery of the mainland. It is presently estimated that after the recovery there will be ten cities with a population of over one million each, 110 cities with a population of 100,000 - 1,000,000 each; 647 cities with a population of 50,000 - 100,000 each; 3,880 towns with a population of 10,000 - 50,000 each; and 1,940 towns with a population of 5,000 - 10,000 each. Not including towns with a population of less than 5,00, there will already be a total of 6,587 cities and towns. Naturally difficulties concerning city construction will be numerous, of which the main ones will probably be the following:

(1) Sources of finance for city reconstruction - "Finance is the key to the execution of policy". No enterprises can be undertaken without financing. The development of a municipality embraces works of many kinds such as construction of drainage, markets, schools, water supply, public sanitation etc, for which considerable funds are needed. In the past, implementation of municipal development schemes on the mainland was handicapped by the shortage of funds, despite the fact that these schemes were well laid out in advance. Once the mainland is recovered, problems of financing might even be more difficult in view of the exhaustion of the national income and wealth resulting from the widespread destruction wrought by the Communists.

(2) Shortage of technical personnel - Planning is a pre-requisite to municipal development. Before the formulation of a plan, it is necessary to make detailed investigation and study of natural conditions, geology, soil, wind, precipitation, transport, production, as well as of increase of population engaged in industry and commerce, to be followed by survey and

/mapping.

mapping. It is only possible then to draft a plan which can be used for implementation. Work on the above requires painstaking planning and research by various experts. While local governments are often helpless to undertake their planning work due to the lack of experts and technicians, the provincial and central governments have themselves insufficient personnel to do the planning for each city or town. The shortage of technical personnel hampers the planning of municipal development, and the problem posed has yet to be solved.

(3) Settlement of municipal land - Planning for the settlement of city land is a basic undertaking in the development of a municipality, for city land must be firstly zoned by districts in order to facilitate the execution of municipal planning schemes. Furthermore, city land, once it is defined according to its uses, will not only affect directly or indirectly various undertakings of the city for security, transport and sanitation, but also increase the value of land. The increased value of land, which is not by any means due to the efforts of landowners, should go to enhance the government revenue for municipal development. Because of the growth of a municipality, there is a need to reserve land for public construction. But, how to restrict the use of land, how to reasonably compensate owners for land requisitioned by the government, and how to reclassify land for economic uses are some of the questions which have to be considered in order to avoid any difficulty arising in the planning for municipal development. The section relating to land use in the "Land Law" and "Rules for the enforcement of land law" dealt only with restrictions on land use, not with the surrender of the increased value of land. This was later supplemented in 1954 by the promulgation of the "Rules concerning the enforcement of equal land rights in municipalities."

(4) Re-modelling of old cities - it is difficult to construct new cities, but to remodel old cities is even more so. In China, there are many municipalities which were re-modelled from old cities. Thus, one often sees a division between new and old towns within a city. In the new town, streets

/are wide and neat,

are wide and neat, while in the old towns, streets are narrow and untidy. If the old area should be thoroughly reconstructed, buildings have to be demolished and considerable expenses involved. Sometimes, it is not always possible to construct a new city completely to replace the old one which possesses transport, location and historical significance. Consequently, one finds a new city located side by side with an old one. How to reconstruct old cities so as to meet modern requirements is a problem which may not be so easily solved.

V. SUGGESTIONS

According to the conditions of growth of municipalities and the most difficult problems encountered, the following suggestions are proposed:

(1) To establish an international body to undertake the training of technical personnel required by member governments for their municipal planning and assist them in their municipal development work.

(2) To engage experts by the United Nations for the organization of a working group to assist and advise at the request of member governments, in their work concerning municipal development.

(3) To collect by the United Nations books, periodicals, photos and other materials, published by various governments, institutions and individuals on municipal planning, municipal development and municipal construction, for dissemination to and reference by member governments.

(4) To plan the establishment of an "International bank for municipal development" for making long-term low-interest loans to member governments for municipal development.

(5) To finance competent officials of various member governments dealing with municipal development to visit countries in Europe, America and Asia where achievements in municipal development have been notable, for improving the development of municipalities in their own countries.

FOR PARTICIPANTS ONLY

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8-18 August 1956
Bangkok, Thailand

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by
the National Government of the Republic of China

CORRIGENDUM

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SOCIAL SECURITY IN AUSTRALIA

by
F.H. Rowe, C.B.E.,
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Commonwealth of Australia

The term "Social Security" is so commonly used today and the idea it connotes is so frequently discussed in almost every country of the world that one might be misled into thinking of it as a new conception. As an object security is not new but new and different methods have been developing in many countries to achieve it.

Social security has been, and to some extent, always will be, achieved through the inter-dependence of families. The complex nature of great modern communities and of organized industry has, however, made this simple family and neighbourly method of achieving security less real and less effective. As a result it has been increasingly realized that wider and larger organizations

/must make

must make provision for social security and that in many cases government authorities must assume final responsibility for treating certain social ills such as poverty, invalidity and unemployment.

The customary practice in Australia as in many other countries is for individuals to provide for the needs of themselves and their families as far as possible by engaging in some form of work in return for which they receive a wage, salary or other income.

Certain needs common to all families and the needs of families during periods of adversity have, however, come to be accepted wholly or partly as the responsibility of the Commonwealth Government. The government has also accepted responsibility for giving special assistance to the family with expenses associated with maternity and the growth and development of children.

Social Service Benefits

A scheme of benefits administered by the Commonwealth Department of Social Services provides for the needs of citizens during major periods of adversity and this is the basic social security service in Australia. The following benefits are provided to persons experiencing interruption to or cessation of normal income:

Unemployment benefit
Sickness benefit
Invalid pension
Widows' pension
Age pension
Special benefit

A number of benefits and services of a social security nature are administered by the Commonwealth Department of Health. These include hospital, medical and pharmaceutical benefits, tuberculosis allowances and a pensioner medical service.

Unemployment and Sickness Benefits are paid to individuals who through unemployment, sickness or accident, suffer temporary loss of their regular earnings.

/Age pensions

Age pensions provide for the security of men over 65 years of age and women over 60 years and invalid pensions are available to men and women permanently incapacitated for work or permanently blind.

Women with limited resources whose husbands are dead, confined to mental hospitals or gaols or have deserted or divorced them, are assisted through a widows' pension scheme with the economic responsibilities of rearing children and providing for themselves. This scheme makes provision for long-term assistance to women with children and more restricted help to women without children for a limited period of adjustment following the death of their husband and where they are over 50 years of age. The maximum amount of benefit is higher in the case of women with children.

Special benefits are available to people not eligible to receive any other Commonwealth benefit but who by reason of age, physical or mental disability or domestic circumstance are unable to earn a sufficient livelihood for themselves and their dependants.

These social security benefits are designed to assist those in need. They are, therefore, subject to an income test, and in some cases to a property test. In addition residence tests of varying lengths are applied although in the case of the shorter term unemployment and sickness benefit the necessity to satisfy such tests may be waived.

Although Australian citizens contribute towards the cost of their social security by means of an Income Tax and Social Services Contribution, no record is kept of these, nor are they taken into account for the purpose of assessing and paying benefits. The provision of social service benefits is authorized by the Social Services Act 1947-54, which sets out the conditions of eligibility, rates and other details concerning benefits.

Prior to June 1947, these various social services were covered by many different Acts. With the passage of time, however, certain portions of the existing legislation had become obsolete whilst differing provisions in sections of a somewhat similar character in the Acts relating to the various benefits had produced confusion and anomalies. For these reasons the Australian Parliament passed the Social Services Act which aimed to eliminate obsolete sections, remove anomalies, amalgamate certain sections of the administration and modernize the legislation generally.

/Medical Care

Medical Care

Under a scheme of hospital benefits assistance is available towards the cost of hospitalization. A fixed amount per day is available to all persons in approved hospitals and an additional amount is available to all such persons who are members of registered hospital benefit organizations which provide certain minimum benefits.

A scheme of medical benefits ensures that everyone in Australia who makes provision through insurance is able to cover the major cost of all surgical and medical attention when required. Commonwealth Government assistance takes the form of subsidies for the cost of medical treatment incurred by individual members of approved medical insurance organizations and their dependants.

The scheme broadly provides that a government subsidy plus the payment from the organization should cover the major portion of the doctor's charge. The amount of the subsidy varies in relation to the nature of the medical service. The government subsidies are paid through approved voluntary medical insurance organizations.

All Australians are eligible to receive without charge a wide range of specified life-saving and disease-preventing drugs if these are prescribed by a medical practitioner. There is no means or residence test for these benefits.

Tuberculosis allowances are provided for sufferers from tuberculosis and their dependants with the object of encouraging sufferers to refrain from working and to undergo treatment, thus minimizing the spread of tuberculosis and promoting the better treatment of the disease. There is a means test as to income but not as to property and rates of allowance vary according to dependants, and in some cases according to place of treatment.

Medical attention by a general practitioner and medicines are available free of charge to age, invalid, widow and service pensioners and persons in receipt of an allowance under the Commonwealth Tuberculosis Act and their dependent wives and children. The administration of the Pensioner Medical Service is the responsibility of the Commonwealth Department of Health. Pensioners may consult any doctor who has enrolled in the Service. The majority of general practitioners are participating.

/In addition

In addition to the benefits available to all under the Commonwealth Pharmaceutical Benefits Act, pensioners are eligible to receive special pharmaceutical benefits upon presentation to a chemist or dispensary of a doctor's prescription and an entitlement card. The scope of these benefits is very comprehensive and it includes, in addition to a list drawn up by a special committee, practically all drugs contained in the British Pharmacopoeia.

Rehabilitation Service

A scheme for the rehabilitation of physically handicapped persons forms an integral part of the services of the Australian Department of Social Services.

This scheme is aimed at providing assistance to disabled people to enable them to enter or resume suitable employment. Persons eligible to be selected under the scheme are invalid pensioners, unemployment and sickness beneficiaries and recipients of tuberculosis allowances. Duration and extent of disability and likelihood of a person's engaging in a suitable occupation within a period of three years after commencement of treatment and training are determining factors in selection of persons for rehabilitation.

Treatment under the scheme includes medical, dental, psychiatric and hospital treatment (in-patient and out-patient). Physical training and exercises, physiotherapy, occupational therapy and other miscellaneous treatments under medical supervision are provided in residential and day-attendance centres. These centres are intended to provide after-care and physical conditioning, including pre-vocational training, to those whose treatment at home or in hospital has been completed but who are not yet fit to enter employment. They aim also at re-establishing and strengthening the confidence of the disabled person in his ability to take his place with his fellows in employment.

Training offers professional or vocational opportunities. It may be by way of full- or part-time class attendance or correspondence instruction and it may be undertaken in governmental or commercial educational establishments or in certain cases "on the job" in industrial concerns.

Joint Parliamentary Committee

A valuable contribution was made to the development of Australian social security by the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Social Security which was appointed in July 1941. This Committee was required to "inquire into and from time to time, report upon ways and means of improving social and living conditions in Australia and of rectifying anomalies in existing legislation".

The Committee issued nine reports covering a wide variety of social welfare matters, including social security. In the course of the work it collected evidence and considered projects in all States of the Australian Commonwealth; it informed itself of practices and trends in social legislation overseas, particularly in New Zealand and the United States. Among the matters related to social security with which it dealt were widows' and orphan pensions, unemployment insurance, contributory pensions and health and medical services. Many of the Committee's recommendations were adopted and have become integral parts of the Australian Social Security Scheme.

Social Work and Research

Amongst the recommendations of the Committee was the establishment of research facilities and employment of trained social workers within the Commonwealth Department of Social Services. Accordingly in 1944 steps were taken to establish social work and social research within the Department. At the present time a staff of some thirty-five professional social workers is employed to provide a case work service to those Departmental beneficiaries requiring it. A team of research officers not only provides up-to-date information about social welfare services both in Australia and overseas but undertakes social research related to the work of the Department.

Reciprocal Arrangements

A feature of social security in many parts of the world over the past decade has been the growth of provisions to preserve the right to social security of persons changing their country of residence. Post-war immigration schemes and the number of Australians travelling abroad have led the Australian Government also to make certain provision in its social security scheme.

/In 1947

In 1947 and 1948 amendments to the social services acts provided that the residence requirement for short-term benefits might be waived provided there was reasonable assurance that the beneficiary intended to reside permanently in Australia and modifications of a similar character were made with regard to the residence requirements for child endowment and maternity allowances.

Action was also taken by the Australian Government to assist newcomers to Australia and to help Australians travelling overseas through the conclusion of reciprocity agreements with both the United Kingdom and New Zealand. As early as 1943 the Australian and New Zealand Governments concluded a reciprocity agreement relating to age and invalid pensions and this was greatly extended in 1949. Under the present Agreement residence in one country now counts as residence in the other. The Agreement covers all Australian benefits except maternity allowances and special benefits and makes special provision for temporary and permanent changes of residence.

The conclusion of a reciprocity agreement with the United Kingdom in June 1953 brought to fruition endeavour over a long period by the Australian Government to assist the large number of British citizens taking up residence in Australia and recipients of Australian benefits who wished to travel abroad.

Under the Agreement, which commenced to operate in January 1954, former residents of the United Kingdom living in Australia and receiving United Kingdom retirement or contributory old age pensions are entitled in most cases, subject to a means test and other conditions of a non-residence nature, to have their United Kingdom pensions supplemented by an Australian pension to bring the total up to the current pension rate for Australian citizens. Similar principles apply to other benefits.

In return the United Kingdom grants insurance credits, based on residence in Australia to Australians who decide to live permanently in the United Kingdom. Provision has also been made to enable Australian age, invalid and widow pensioners and recipients of child endowment to receive these benefits if they are temporarily in the United Kingdom.

Development of the Australian Social Security Scheme

The present provisions for social security in Australia cover the major needs of citizens, especially when taken in conjunction with the services of State Government and voluntary organizations. It is of interest to note that these services represent the culmination of some fifty years of experiment and development.

The conception of statutory responsibility for social security began early in Australia's history. Historians have noted that from the first colonization there has always been a tendency, stemming perhaps from the peculiar difficulties of settling such a vast and inhospitable country, to look to "the government" to provide what individuals are unable to provide for themselves.

In the late nineteenth century the governments of some of the Australian States enacted the first real social security provisions. At this point Australian statutory social security may be said to have begun. These initial efforts were confined to schemes of assistance for needy old people and invalids, and of course the details of the benefits varied from State to State.

The Australian States were federated in 1901, and under the constitution of the new Commonwealth of Australia certain strictly defined powers were vested in the Commonwealth, the residue remaining with the States. Thus the States are still responsible for certain social security matters today despite the increasing extent of Commonwealth activity particularly since 1941. Under the Constitution specific federal powers in the social security field were confined to invalid and old age pensions, although a further power to grant financial assistance to any State on prescribed conditions are given, which has largely been used in the field of public health.

The third period, which began in 1941, has been a rapid growth of social services. Child endowment was introduced in 1941, and this was followed in 1942 by widows' pensions. The form of the maternity allowance was altered in 1943, and in 1944 an Unemployment and Sickness Benefits was passed. Hospital benefits and pharmaceutical benefits were also provided for as was assistance in the campaign against tuberculosis. Although the period since

/1941 has seen

1941 has seen such a rapid expansion of Commonwealth social services the validity of some of these services was open to serious doubt, for the expansion had taken place only on the basis of the emergency wartime powers of the Commonwealth. In 1946, the government held a referendum to alter the constitution so as to allow the Commonwealth to legislate in the whole of the social service field. This referendum was carried and the constitution amended to provide that the federal parliament might legislate for "the provision of maternity allowances, widows' pensions, pharmaceutical, sickness and hospital benefits, medical and dental services (but not so as to authorize any form of civil conscription), benefits to students and family allowances". The same powers are exercised concurrently by the States.

Conclusion

To some, in 1955, the fabric of Australian social security appears to be fairly complete, to others unmet needs are evident and there still seems room for development. Whatever the correct evaluation may be the Australian Government and people will continue to be alive to the need for the re-examination of their scheme of social security benefits in the light of changing needs and problems.

FOR PARTICIPANTS ONLY

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INDUSTRIALIZATION AND SOCIAL WORK (MACHINE AND MAN)

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INDUSTRIALIZATION AND ITS EFFECT ON SOCIAL WORK FOR FAMILY AND COMMUNITY

Introduction

This report is presented as a general statement, as accurate as we can make it, but not applicable with equal force to the whole of Australia. In a country with six largely autonomous States, differing in their pattern of economic and industrial development, a much more detailed document would would be necessary if we were to give anything like a complete picture.

/Much of

Much of the detailed material that substantiates this document, and shows where modifications of it may be necessary in relation to particular situations, will be in the hands of the delegates to the Conference.

Definitions

The term Industrialization is sometimes used narrowly, to refer to the local concentration of more or less highly mechanised secondary industry, and sometimes more widely to cover all the social and cultural characteristics that accompany an economy that is based on a high proportion of localised and mechanised secondary industry. In yet other contexts it is used even more widely to cover certain rural pursuits, and the social and cultural background that goes with them.

For the purpose of this report industrialization is to be taken as referring to the production method whereby goods and services are produced in accordance with a system into which the individual must fit; as distinct from the peasant and domestic economies in which the individual had a larger freedom in adapting the productive system in his own interest and capacity.

Mechanisation, of course, has been a major factor in determining the pattern of industrialization in Australia. But it must be insisted that industrialization, as defined, may take place apart from mechanisation

It should also be borne in mind that when we discuss the impact of industrialization on personal welfare it is frequently quite impossible to separate the trends that arise as a direct result of industrialization from those that stem from other contemporary sources. For instance, social philosophies and moral outlook may change as a result of thinking that is relatively independent of current economic situations. But they may then enter into that situation to interact with other prevailing trends and produce a result different from what otherwise would have been.

If, therefore, we may say that the impact of industrialization is one thing in this country, we do not feel that it would be valid to assume that similar industrial development would necessarily produce similar social and cultural changes in places where the social and cultural heritage is different.

/Social Work.

Social Work. This is a concept that is undergoing change in Australia at the present time. In the past it has been used mainly to refer to remedial assistance offered free from outside the family group to persons already in distress. The concept is now expanding. One of the first extensions was the inclusion of youth group activities that had a recreational and developmental, as distinct from a relief-giving, purpose. More recently the concept of social work has been further expanded to include personal counselling services, social research and community organization.

But important fields like health and education while acknowledged as having a first rank social importance are usually not seen as fields of social work so much as fields that have a social work area or department within them. (e.g., nursing and physiotherapy are not generally viewed as social work, but the Almoner and Occupational Therapy Departments are).

The attitude to income security services on a statutory basis is similar. The government departments concerned have large and efficient social work sections within them. But the total work of these departments is not popularly viewed as social work.

Neither are movements for social reform usually regarded as social work unless the reforms are such as may be carried out by public enterprise within the framework of existing legislation. Where legislation is required, the activity is regarded as political, which is quite a different category.

In the Australian setting Family means husband and wife and their offspring. The average size of the family is approximately 4 to 5 persons (including parents). In the life cycle of the family the prevailing pattern is one of increase during the early years of the marriage, followed by some twelve to fifteen years during which the number remains stationary, and then a drop as the offspring move out to establish homes of their own. When the family separates and declines in this way the bonds of loyalty and interest remain strong and responsibility for one another's welfare is still recognized. But as facilities are developed by government, semi-government and voluntary agencies, the trend is for people to look more to these agencies and less to the family in time of need.

/The term

The term Community is used socially as meaning either a relatively restricted group having their main social and economic interests in the one locality, or the State as a whole. Which of these meanings is to be understood in this report will have to be inferred from the context.

A. WHAT WE FACE

On Individuals

1. PARENTS

(a) The average age at which persons may marry and become parents is approximately:- 26 for females, 29 for males - a figure which, in spite of the tendency toward earlier marriages that was apparent during the years 1933 to 1947, has remained fairly constant for the past quarter of a century. This is high in relation to the age at which physical maturity is reached and social freedom is granted, especially in the case of those who, in increasing numbers, must continue with advanced courses of technical and professional training which go on till they are as much as 27 and, in some cases, even older. But the figure relates closely to the age at which full rates of pay are awarded. This produces protest and resentment, evidence of which may be seen in several ways.

First, there is a continuance of a high rate of pre-marital sexual experimentation, so that in spite of the use of contraceptives the prevalence of unwed motherhood remains high, and the proportion of first-born children born in wedlock but premaritally conceived is 16%, a figure which has fallen steadily till it is now little more than half what it was 25 years ago.

Secondly, there is a weakening of the tradition that a man complete his training and be established in his trade or profession before marriage. This is manifesting itself in a demand for higher pay for trainees whose wives continue in their former occupations while the couple remain deliberately childless. This latter position has come to be accepted because it is economically advantageous, though its moral and personal implications have not been widely studied.

(b) Parenthood

(b) Parenthood involved economic disadvantage. In some degree this is ture of every economy, industrial or otherwise. But in the Australian economy, industry is usually short of labour, In a population of under ten million the number of unfilled jobs registered by the Commonwealth Employment Service recently has been of the order of 60,000 while it is generally considered that this figure would be far below the actual number of jobs available, many employers being grossly under-staffed without registering the vacancies.

The result of this trend over a period of years is that all available female labour can be absorbed at rates of pay rarely less than 75% of the male rate, and often equal to it.

On the other hand, male workers are paid in accordance with time spent or results achieved, regardless of family status or number of dependents. Parenthood, therefore, by requiring the wife to leave her paid work, may in a typical case reduce the joint income of husband and wife on the basic wage from £21.0.0. per week to about £12.0.0., or £13.0.0., while considerably increasing the expenses to be met. Evidence has been produced to show that even after allowance has been made for the Commonwealth Endowment (5/- a week for a first child and 10/- a week for each further child under 16 years of age) and for tax concessions allowed to the breadwinner of the family the economic disadvantage of parenthood, compared with the childless and the single, is very great.

This situation, therefore, constitutes a pressure toward delayed or childless marriages and toward reduction in the size of families; and toward early return of the mother to work. Though it may not be the sole cause, industrialization is a major contributing factor in these trends.

(c) The pattern of parental responsibilities is also affected by industrialization. One of the features of industrialization is the tendency to accelerate the rate of change in fashions, modes of living, and productive techniques. This gives new force to the saying that what would do for father's day won't do for ours. And it renders the parents less able to accept

/responsibility for

responsibility for the detailed direction of the child's education and development, especially if the child is to work at a different occupation from that of the parents. Moreover, many of the services a child needs are matters for experts rather than laymen. For that reason the Baby Health Centre, the School, and the Vocational Guidance and Training Services have come into being. Though the industrial trends and the economic situation may have made the provisions of such services desirable, what does not seem to have been fully realized is that they are supplementary to what parents are expected to do. There seems to be at least a partial failure to understand and discharge the continuing function of parents in the social and moral training of the child.

Evidence of this weakness is seen in the continuance of an unabated juvenile delinquency rate, in spite of a general prosperity and the availability of work and leisure facilities. It is also likely that this is one of the contributory factors behind the high incidence of irresponsibility and absenteeism from work; the high divorce rates and the frequency of neurotic break-down.

2. WOMEN

Industrialization has brought many changes in the opportunity and status that is open to women. Jobs are plentiful and in a wide variety, and wages are high. Starting from the fact that it offers her a wide variety of paid jobs, it follows:-

(a) There is a lessening of her economic dependency. This means that prior to marriage she experiences more of the freedom and responsibility of being self-supporting. In marriage she may feel that she has contributed more to the creation of the home, that she therefore has a better ground for claim to equality and to co-operative basis for the family management and leadership, and that she need not be so fearful of the withdrawal of her husband's support by reason of death, desertion or divorce. It also means that the prospect of poverty in the event of widowhood is not quite so frightening.

/(b) There is a

(b) There is a widening of the avenues for activity and expression. For while all the domestic arts and maternal activities remain open to the women there are the added opportunities in a wide range of industrial and commercial pursuits.

Any advantage that this represents tends, however, to be short lived. In the long run it may be an advantage to have contact with the people one meets at the place of work, and may be a stimulating thing to have the additional interests. But the woman in industry soon becomes the victim of the monotonous routines that are typical of the workshop and the production line, and she suffers in the same way as the man under the de-personalizing pressures of the modern industrial structure.

(c) Concurrently with and arising out the matters just referred to, the social distinction between the women and the men of the community tends to be narrowed. Signs of this are seen in the disappearance of some of the traditional chivalry that the man used to show toward the woman, and in the differing standards of modesty that are now observed. Other evidence of it is seen in the more general sharing by women with men in leisure time activities; in the greater degree of initiative and self-determination that the woman is allowed to exercise; and in the fuller acceptance by men of domestic duties.

(d) As a further result of this the woman of the Australian community is called upon to make adjustments at a different point from those of earlier generations. Previously, marriage meant adjustment by transfer of activity from one domestic setting to another. Now it means a change from industrial to more domestic types of activity. This often involves difficulties and sometimes brings further complicating factors into the early marriage relationship.

(e) Industrialization has relieved women in the home of many of the hard tedious duties and drudgery by the introduction of many labour saving implements - washing machines, refrigerators, floor polishers, food preparation devices and the like. Perhaps, also, radiograms and wireless sets may come into the same category. In Australia this equipment is moving from the "luxury" to the "necessaries" group and even the poorer homes of today are acquiring these equipments gradually whilst in the average type of home many of them have already been installed. Even the motor car is reaching the average home.

/3. CHILDREN AND

3. CHILDREN AND YOUTH

That the impact of industrialization on the children and youth of the community will be far reaching appears from the consideration that has already been given to the effects of it on parents and mothers. But there are further particular matters that require special attention.

(a) Place of abode. One of the effects of industrialization has been urbanization. Improved methods and machinery have made it possible in some of the rural industries for as few as one-third or even a quarter of the number of workers to produce two and three times as much as was produced by the greater numbers half a century ago. In the meantime, work of a new and often attractive type is offering in the town and cities. The movement of population to the cities, therefore, proceeded till more than 50 per cent of the total Australian population was to be found in the capital cities and their metropolitan areas. This trend has not been arrested. In the State of New South Wales, for instance, in the seven years following 1947 the average annual increase in the City of Sydney was 1.9 per cent, while the rest of the State grew at the rate of 2.7 per cent. But this was due more to increases in the other large industrial areas like Newcastle and Wollongong, and represented no turn of the tide toward greater rural populations. This urbanization exposes children to many hazards. One is in traffic. In spite of strenuous and well planned effort, aimed at road safety, the number of children killed each year has reached a figure that puts road accident ahead of most of the common diseases as the principal killer. The numbers maimed are even greater.

Organization also involves a health hazard in the exposure of the child to greater risk of infection from communicable disease, and to the effects of air pollution.

/Yet another

Yet another of the effects of urbanization is in the size of the living area available to the family. The congestion of the earlier years that led to the creation of the slums, where the only play place for many of the children was in the street, has not been eradicated, but the danger of the repetition of this mistake has been overcome by the government regulation and supervision of housing. But even now the size of the house in the industrial localities is such that there is no alternative for the older members of the family but to seek much of their recreational activities away from the home. It is not to be inferred that this is necessarily a bad thing. But it does mean that to some extent the family and the home become less of the focal point of the life and development of the individual. And to that extent the social and cultural pattern changes.

(b) Size of Family. The number of children born to each family does not now commonly exceed four, with the average being 2.55 per cent. The crude birth rate is lower in the more industrialized States. This may make it possible for each child to receive more of the time and attention of the parents, which could be to the child's advantage, but, for the sake of variety and interest, more fellowship will therefore be sought outside the family group. Theoretically, this situation could have both its advantages and its disadvantages. Which, on balance, proves to be the greater, is a matter that to our knowledge has not been carefully appraised, and on which no opinion is here ventured.

It does seem to be beyond question, however, that this smallness of family is one of the things that makes it more difficult later on for the children to house and support their aged parents and so makes it necessary for other provision to be made for the care of the elderly.

/(c) Educational

(c) Educational requirements. Practical considerations have always created a pressure toward that kind of education that will enable the young person to get which is considered a good job as soon as he leaves school (which he may do at the age of fourteen or fifteen, having been required by law to attend school since he was five or six) and industry prefers people who are immediately useful. On the other hand, there always have been and still are those who see education as involving the development of personality and a training for living rather than training for a job. The educational curriculum in most States is, therefore, a compromise between these two demands. The result is that many pupils emerge with neither a complete equipment for their jobs nor a sufficient foundation for the proper enjoyment of culture or the management of social and personal relationships.

This is not to say that educational facilities have not increased in an industrialized situation, but rather that the demands of that situation will always tend to determine, and give a utilitarian slant to, the pattern of educational programmes (e.g. technological universities.)

Another very important aspect of the impact of the industrialized life on the young person is the need to apply oneself to courses of higher technical learning on the part of those who are to fill the more skilled and responsible positions. This places very severe restrictions on the social activity of the student, and frequently involves a degree of mental and physical strain that is far heavier than can be comfortably borne. In particular, it often precludes him from some of the things that he would normally share with the rest of the family group, and may tend to hinder the development of the social skills. Because of this and other factors approximately 60 per cent of children leave school as soon as they have completed the period of compulsory attendance, despite the availability of free education. Labour shortage is therefore being experienced most acutely in the more highly skilled occupations, and is a serious handicap to further development.

/4. ELDERLY PEOPLE

4. ELDERLY PEOPLE

The retiring age from most occupations is either 60 or 65 years of age. But in the industries, as distinct from rural work, the worker usually has to continue at something like full pressure till that age is reached. He then stops suddenly. In the rural occupations some tapering off of activities is generally possible. This sudden cessation of work often calls for an extremely difficult re-adjustment.

There are many for whom the period immediately prior to retirement is also one of considerable strain. The bodily functions and the mental powers may already be showing signs of senescent fatigue. Less exacting work is often desirable but a change of occupation at that stage can rarely be made without loss of long service benefits or some similar disadvantage. At this point, then, industrial conditions are difficult for the aged. The difficulty is at best only slightly eased by the operation of private and statutory superannuation schemes.

When retirement has actually occurred there is generally reduction of the rate of income. The smallness of families, and the extent of other responsibilities already being carried by the younger generation, make it impossible for many retired persons to find accommodation with relatives and thus reduce expenses. It therefore happens that for many retirement means a reduction in the standard of living.

This problem is accentuated when one partner is left without the husband or the wife. And the problem is increasing with the greater longevity of the community. The present expectation of life is 66 years for males and 70 for females. The present population over 65 is approximately 700,000 persons or 8% of the total. Of these about 55% are in receipt of Commonwealth Aged Pension. As a result there are many elderly people obliged to live alone in inferior dwellings. A recent survey shows that in and around the city of Sydney (population approximately 1¾ million) there are homes for the aged with accommodation for 1,720 persons in State institutions, and in voluntary institutions for approximately 1,200 persons. But in all cases these are full, with waiting lists that close when the numbers on that list reaches the probable intake in a two-year period.

/Enquiries reveal

Enquiries reveal that this section of the community presents some urgent problems for which our way of life in an industrialized area has not yet found a solution. At present the Commonwealth Government is offering special assistance by making available £1,400,000 per annum for distribution on a pound-for-pound subsidy basis to voluntary organizations prepared to build homes for the aged.

5. IMPACT ON FAMILY UNITY AND NEIGHBOURHOOD-RELATIONS

(a) Many of the effects of industrialization on the unity of the family have already been stated or implied in what has been said already. The further question is whether there is anything that the industrial system does to the personality of the worker that then reflects itself in the home relationships.

It is generally agreed that the industrial system tends to be impersonal in its attitudes and methods and therefore de-personalizing in its effects on people. If this is so, then one might expect one of two things to follows. Either people will carry that changed set of personal values over into the home relationships and so treat one another more impersonally - this would tend toward the loosening of family ties - or there could be seeking after more intimate and secure personal relationships in the home as compensation for the impersonal work situation. If the former of these two procedures were dominant, it would be fair to expect that family instability would tend to be higher in those parts of the community most closely associated with the higher degrees of industrialization. But it is not readily apparent that this is so. And until some survey is made to prove whether it is so, the suggestion that industrialization is chiefly and directly responsible for the slackening of family unity must be regarded as speculative.

(b) The impact of industrialization on neighbourhood relations is not easy to summarise. But there are two things that should be mentioned. Firstly, in those cases where there is a community built up round a single industry that community suffers from some of the fruits of involution, and there is a degree of social degeneracy as a result. Secondly, where there is a diversity of industries, but with it an overlarge population, the community

/tends to

tends to disintegrate into a number of sectional and special interest groups. This often means in the end that people having their vital interests in other parts of the district, away from where they live, may not know even the names of those who are in the house next door; and that things that are of public importance often languish for want of public understanding and support.

B. WHAT IS DONE AND SHOULD BE DONE

Physical setting for home and neighbourhood

1. HOUSING AND HOME PLANNING

(a) The minimum standard of homes is prescribed by government regulation. This standard varies slightly in accordance with locality. It is based on considerations of durability and safety of materials and constructions; size in relation to the number of persons for which the dwelling provides; sanitation; ventilation and other health matters; the provision of essential services.

(b) Prior to World War II most home building was done either to the design of the intending occupier and at his expense, or by investors erecting places to let. Since the war the largest builder of homes has been the government, with funds provided by the central government and the work administered by Housing Authorities in the several States. In the main, these places have been let but schemes are now coming into operation which allow for purchase by the occupier. One of the most interesting features of the government housing schemes is the fixing of rents in relation to the income of the occupier rather than in terms of the economic value of the property. In New South Wales the rent on Housing Commission dwellings is the economic rental or one-fifth of the income of the occupier, whichever is the less. This implies the theory that housing is a responsibility of the community rather than of the individual alone. In this way it is expected that the lag in supply of homes, caused through reductions in the building programmes during the war and during the economic depression of the 1930's, may be overcome, a contribution made toward the needs of the workers who, for any reason, may have to move from place to place, as well as doing something toward the closing of the gap between the economic position of the man with more dependents and the man who has few.

/Next to governments,

Next to governments, the co-orperative building societies play the largest part in the provision of homes.

(c) One of the corollaries of government activity in home building is the planning of the neighbourhood. In part, this power has long been vested in local government authorities who could reserve certain areas for specified purpose and present the erection of buildings and the carrying on of activities that would be a nuisance to the other occupiers of buildings in the neighbourhood. They have also had the power to resume land for public purposes, and therefore to create amenities and services that were for the good of the locality as a whole. But generally these powers were used with only limited effect, and with little foresight. But the recent trend has been to amalgamate the local government authorities into larger units, or to create a co-ordinating authority (such as the County of Cumberland Planning Authority which deals with an area having a population of 2,000,000 within a radius of twenty-five miles, and heavily industrialized) with power to plan on a more long range basis, and with a broader perspective that can take account of the interacting needs of contiguous areas.

Under such schemes as this there can be a rational locating of shops, schools, churches, playing areas etc., in relation to the residential and the industrial establishments, and a more efficient management of transport. But the general policy is that once the layout has been planned, and the houses erected, it remains for the local people to develop any further improvements as they are able. In doing this, differing patterns have been followed in the sharing of responsibility by the local government, the voluntary organizations and the industrial enterprises in the district. The most successful are generally those that leave room for a good deal of initiative and voluntary assistance, backed by adequate finance from government or industrial sources.

2. PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH OF THE FAMILY IN INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

Recent years have seen a switch from a remedial to a preventive emphasis in health services. To encourage people to take preventive measures, governments have provided increasingly for the health needs of the community. Existing facilities, both preventive and remedial, may be summarised as follows:

/(a) Pre-natal

(a) Pre-natal Clinics: Some provided by government, some by voluntary agencies, often located at hospitals and often as separate units. Service is either free, by donation or on a means test basis.

(b) Baby Health Clinics: Often associated with pre-natal clinics and run on a similar basis. These are responsible for the dissemination of all general matters of child hygiene and nutrition.

(c) School Medical Services: To check the health of the school child. A free service usually given twice during the school years and leads to the correction of defective teeth, vision, hearing, posture, etc.

(d) General Hospitals.

(e) Special Hospitals - Dental, Eye, Mental, etc.

(f) Convalescent Homes and Hospitals.

(g) Voluntary Societies and Institutions: Anti-Tuberculosis; Spastic Centres; Deaf, Dumb and Blind; Epileptics; Crippled Children; Retarded Children Centres.

(h) District or Visting Nursing Services, etc.

(i) Red Cross Blood Transfusion Service.

(j) X-Ray Sercies for Tuberculosis.

Quite a number of other facilities could be added to this list but of more special interest are the following:

(i) Prevention and treatment of occupational diseases and industrial accidents: Most of the larger industrial undertakings have their own medical services. This is concerned with the treatment of injuries and sicknesses that occur during work and with such other things as pre-employment medical examination to determine fitness for the job, with subsequent examinations to see whether the worker is showing signs of exposure to undue health risks. The service is also concerned with research into the nature and effect of such risks and ways of reducing them. In regard to industrial accident, adequate safety precautions are required by law, and the accident cases are protected by Workers Compensation Insurance which provides either weekly payments or lump sum compensation for reduction or loss in earning capacity. The cost of this insurance is borne by the employer.

/(ii) Other

(ii) Other provision for economic security in case of illness: Most awards provide for holidays on full pay as a recreation leave, and a further period (7 to 14 days in a year) as sick leave. Beyond that the Commonwealth Government's Sickness Allowance of £2.10.0. per week, with additional payments for dependents, may be claimed. In the case where hospitalization is necessary, the Commonwealth also pays a subsidy toward the cost of hospital fees (8/- per day, increased to 12/- per day in the case of those who are subscribers to a Hospitals Contribution Fund). (Note - the public ward fee in New South Wales hospital is now £12.12.0. per week; the basic wage for male workers is £12.3.0. per week).

(iii) Medical Benefits Scheme: This is in operation for the subsidization of individual payments toward the cost of doctors' fees. In the case of a person being 85% incapacitated for work invalid pension at the rate of £4.0.0. is paid - subject to means test.

By means of all the foregoing and other services the standard of physical health of individual workers is kept relatively high, and the impact of ill health on the economic resources and social life of the family is well cushioned.

Such services also contribute to the maintenance of mental health, but the incidence of mental disorder, and of social maladjustment consequent upon that disorder, appears to increase. This suggests that there may be psychological concomitants of industrialization presenting problems as yet unsolved, and our facilities for the care of the mentally ill are admittedly inadequate.

The further way in which working conditions may have adverse effects on family life is where the irregularity of hours worked interferes with the normal enjoyment of the social life of the family or the discharge of duty to the family. Work involving this sort of thing always has the higher rates of absenteeism and labour turn-over. As a compensation, shift work, broken shifts, week-end and public holiday work is paid for at higher rates. But the greater financial gain does nothing actually to reduce the social disadvantage involved.

3. THE SOCIAL REHABILITATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

Work aimed at rehabilitation of the handicapped has received a great impetus since World War II. The factors contributing to this were (a) the needs of the injured ex-serviceman requiring medical and social rehabilitation which called facilities into being and gave experience to workers in this field, (b) the demand for all possible labour at a time when labour was scarce, (c) the possibility of reducing the outlay on invalid pensions by training and returning invalids to employment. With the serviceman's need now largely met attention has turned more to the civilian handicapped. Following a successful pilot experiment, the Commonwealth Government has now extended the age range (persons between 16 and 25) for whom free rehabilitation training is available in certain diagnostic groupings.

While of necessity a large part of the work done is on the physcial side, and much of the training has to do with gaining competence for employment, the scheme is aimed at full social rehabilitation. The aim is to enable the individual to have as full a range of satisfying personal relationship as possible. But outside the 16-25 age group served by this scheme, there are an even greater number for whom assistance toward effective social rehabilitation is needed. Some work has been done for special groups such as crippled children, spastics, deaf, dumb and blind, and more recently for the tuberculosis patients. In this the bulk of the work has been done by the voluntary agencies, sometimes with government subsidy. More recently the Commonwealth Government Department of Social Service has entered into the rehabilitation field for the training of pensionable people who have a chance of becoming earning factors.

The extent of the further work needing to be done for these and other groups is not known, but the subject is receiving a good deal of attention. At the moment several committees are at work studying the problem, chiefly from the employment angle, as it is considered that employment produces economic and social advantages simultaneously. In the meantime, some quite careful studies of the social implications of certain types of handicap have been made and the importance of the 'rehabilitation of the whole person' is being stressed.

/4. LEISURE-TIME

4. LEISURE-TIME: NEEDS AND ACTIVITIES

Although the official working time is forty hours per week, the average time spent in travelling to and from work has increased so that for the average worker some fifty hours per week become involved. But this still means that for most workers the number of waking hours not connected with work is greater than those that are. The exceptions to this are found chiefly among professional people, housewives and some of the highly skilled scientific and technical workers.

Some of the leisure time is spent in the home, with reading, hobbies and radio entertainment. Leisure time spent outside the home consists of a wide range of outdoor sports and attendance at films, dances etc. Facilities for this kind of activity come very nearly if not quite up to the level of demand for them and mobility in getting to the place desired is greatly helped by Australia's being a highly motorised community, with one motor vehicle to each four persons.

Popular demand seems to be mainly for entertainment but facilities for educational uses of leisure time are also availed of. Facilities for use in leisure are provided through four main channels:

(a) Government, e.g., public libraries, parks and playgrounds, broadcasting, evening colleges.

(b) Commercial enterprise, e.g., broadcasting, films etc.

(c) Organized community effort, e.g., sporting clubs and recreational groups.

(d) Recreational facilities provided by employers for their workers.

If there is any gap in the facilities provided it is probably mainly at the level of social leisure activity for the elderly. Steps toward the solution of this problem are being taken with the formation of "Senior Citizens' Clubs".

/5. ADJUSTMENT OF

5. ADJUSTMENT OF THE FAMILY TO CONDITIONS OF LIFE IN INDUSTRIAL AREAS

The effect of industrialization on the size of the family, its unity, stability and stages of development have already been seen. One further factor needs to be noted, viz., rigidity. To prevent too great a labour turnover, and in response to demands for security, industry gives long service benefits, seniority rights, superannuation benefits, etc. In addition, industry tends to require even more intense speculations. These two factors mean that many a worker soon finds himself in a position where he cannot change his job readily without finding some loss of entitlements and opportunity. This means that just when he would wish to go to another locality to meet the need of some other member of the family, or to take on different work for the sake of the change, he may not do so. Rigidity of this sort may react badly on the individual and may cause the family to break up.

It then becomes a matter of policy for the workers to decide whether they prefer the security and economic benefits and will endure the rigidity that goes with it, or will exchange some of the security for the benefits of a greater flexibility.

That there is need for social education not now being given appears when we consider that there is a high degree of passivity and spectatorism. Far more people watch sport than play it at any one time. Entertainments that allow of passive receptivity get a greater following than those that require active participation and social intercourse. And the administrative affairs of trade unions, sports clubs and recreation groups are the interest of the minorities within these organizations. Attempts at social education are made in the schools where social and historical background and community structure is described, and through press and radio which strives to make the community aware of current issues. Unresponsiveness to these attempts may be due to a transference to the wider social situation of the industrial 'psychology' which feels "I am not expected to understand or be responsible for the process as a whole. All that matters is that I repeat the routines and get what I consider a just return". If this is so, then it is probable that no satisfactory social education can be offered or expected till there

/has been a

has been a satisfactory answering of the basic question that lies at the back of all industrialization. "Is man made for the sake of a better economic result or is a better economic result made for the sake of better men?"

6. SPECIAL DOMESTIC PROBLEMS

These arise:

(a) When the chief breadwinner suffers a reduction of earning capacity. This, we have seen, is relieved by Workers Compensation, Unemployment and Sickness Benefits, Paid Sick Leave, Invalid Pensions, etc.

(b) When sickness affects a member of the family. This is relieved by the services of public hospitals and the provisions of hospitals, medical and pharmaceutical benefits schemes.

(c) Where the housewife must work to support children. Child minding centres are available in some places, but more often the assistance of relatives or neighbours have to be sought.

(d) Where a working mother becomes out of work. Assuming she was the sole support of the family, Unemployment and Sickness Benefits, or Invalid Pension, whichever is appropriate, would apply. Assistance would also be available through a number of voluntary agencies. If the unemployment is due to sickness a housekeeper may be provided, or the children placed in the care of an institution.

7. HOW MAY WE ACHIEVE OUR AIM

Services to meet the welfare of individuals and families in Australia have come as the shared responsibility of industry, government and voluntary agencies. This is a generally accepted principle though opinion differs as to the proper proportions and as to where the lines of demarcation should be.

Broadly, the role of industry is to provide the cost of Workers Compensation Insurance, and paid recreation and sickness leave; to contribute by taxation to the revenues on which government services are provided; to see that all safety and health regulations are observed; and, in the case of the larger employers, they often voluntarily support workers superannuation schemes, and contribute toward the provision of social and

/recreational amenities.

recreational amenities. It is the role of government to provide basic income security, educational and health services. The income security services have never reached a level where they meet the full cost of adequate living. They are designed rather to serve as grants-in-aid which mitigate the worst degrees of poverty and destitution. In the educational and health fields, government provides facilities and contributes toward, but does not fully cover, the costs incurred in their use. This leaves large areas of need that continue to be met by the voluntary agencies, which have tended to increase, in spite of the increase in government services. Some of them supplement government assistance, other act in an ancillary capacity, providing the institutions in which care is given with government financial support; yet other supply advisory aid counselling services and some provide for special services for which there is no other provision at all.

The role of the social worker is an expanding one. Trained personnel officers in industry are being used increasingly, and in addition to their concern with staff training, placement, safety and health, are paying more and more attention to the interaction between the industrial and the social circumstances of the worker.

In the statutory and voluntary agencies more professionally trained social workers are being employed. Of these some receive their training in University schools of social work while others do special 'in-service' courses. In some fields staff requirements are fairly adequately met but over all the supply of social workers is below the demand. This is particularly the case in the psychiatric field. The professionally trained social group worker is to be found chiefly in the youth recreation field, but so far there has not been the necessary financial assistance to support large-scale activity of this kind.

8. CONCLUSION

It has been indicated that in the modern community the family has undergone considerable changes, and is subject to pressures that may well produce further change. Much of this pressure, though by no means all, arises directly or indirectly from the industrialization of the economy.

/But it is not

But it is not to be assumed that all the changes mentioned are detrimental. Some of them represent positive advantage, whether viewed from the economic or from the personality angle, and in those cases where the changes may be fairly judged as harmful it is by no means certain that they are entirely or directly the outcome of industrialization. What the study does show is the need for a thorough and continuing programme of research into the field of personal relations and development, and a persistent effort to clarify our concept of the goals of human living. In this the social worker has an important function to fulfil. The social worker's experience should yield information about the symptoms of social disorder and stress in human relations. And the social worker's techniques should be valuable in coming to an understanding of what those symptoms mean. But in doing this work the social worker must be 'clinically' teamed with the educator, the administrator, the employer, the medical worker and the pastor.

Resources and organization for such research are perhaps the most urgent need at present, and like the services already provided, might well be the joint responsibility of industry, of government and of volunary agencies.

FOR PARTICIPANTS ONLY

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SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF URBANIZATION IN VIET-NAM

Submitted by the Government of the Republic of Viet-Nam

After ten years of war and disorders, the time has come for the young Republic of Viet-Nam to decide on policies calculated to ensure order and stability within the framework of the country's economic and cultural development.

1. The untold harm done in the last few years to our heritage left us in a tragic position with our capital equipment destroyed our houses crumbling, our countryside deserted, many villages burnt down, some urban centres razed to the ground and ruins covering the whole land.

Homeless villagers deserted in thousands their rice-fields for the decrepit suburban slums of the cities in quest of work and personal safety; thousands of refugees from the North streamed South in search of a sanctuary, leaving behind their plots of land, their huts, their rice-fields and their live-stock.

To find work and housing for these people has become a task of foremost urgency.

/2. To solve

2. To solve the problem of improving and raising the living and occupational standards of its population, the Government of Viet-Nam owes it to the Nation to undertake without delay the development of the country and the improvement and modernization of its capital equipment layout.

Under the present conditions, the catastrophic and profoundly disturbing state of dilapidation of our heritage requires a coherent urbanization policy.

The government's desire to preserve an optimum demographic density and to facilitate generally the living conditions of the population requires a better organization of collective life through a zoning process differentiating between urban, industrial and rural areas.

PRINCIPAL TARGETS OF THE NATIONAL EQUIPMENT PLAN

I. THE ILLS

(A) At the present time, Viet-Nam suffers from a lack of balance in the distribution of its population and natural resources.

1. There is an overcrowding of population in the deltas and coastal plains; rice is the only cultivated crop, with a resultant shaky economy easily upset by unfavourable weather conditions.

2. Overcrowding of the metropolitan area of Saigon-Cholon and other urban centres like Dalat, Hue, Tourane, Nha-Trang, to which thousands of peasants have been flocking for the past ten years, abandoning their rice-fields in search of greater safety offered by the cities, where they have been living at the expense of the armies of occupation.

3. 600,000 refugees from the North have been or will be taken care of in resettlement villages, which it would be unwise to lay out and build up without a predetermined plan.

4. Some areas like the High Tablelands (Kontum, Darlac, Tioma) are almost empty and completely undeveloped; others, like the Plain of Rushes and the Plain of Camau are lying fallow and should be drained and put under cultivation.

/B. The chaotic

(B) The chaotic conditions which still exist in Viet-Nam are deeply etched into the landscape of the country by the haphazard growth of towns and cities caused by the defaulting political regime of the last decades.

1. Since 1945, in face of the stream of refugees of and military exigencies, the majority of urban centres were developed or reconstructed heedless of planning and aesthetic considerations.

2. The town of Hoi-Am, partly destroyed by the war, does not appear to be any longer adequate as the administrative capital of Quang-Nam province. The same applies to Song-Cau.

   Other administrative capitals like Tan-An and Bac-Lieu, which are not the centre of gravity of their administered areas would grow in importance with the adjunction of the Moc-Hoa and Camau regions.

3. A considerable number of dispersed hamlets will have to be grouped in order to benefit from communal services and environmental facilities and permit a collective cultivation of their lands.

4. Finally, the natural resources of the subsoil have not yet been rationally developed and no industrial centres have been created; e.g. Nong-Son hard coal; Bong-Mieu and Kim-Son gold; Duc Bo zinc; Phu-Quoc jet and Uminh (Camau) peat.

(C) In the field of urbanization planning, the country has as yet disregarded the rational utilization of available building space, or has not yet been in a position to give the matter the consideration it deserves.

1. The haphazard building up pattern is the direct consequence of the absence of urbanization planning, the carelessness of administrative authorities in a troubled period and, finally, of an inadequate and antiquated legislation.

2. The public authorities (admittedly precarious) of the last years drifted into facile and demagogic solutions in the matter of urban expansion programmes and thus have committed irreparable errors.

/3. There is

3. There is a tendency in some towns and cities (Dalat, Nha-Trang, Camau) to disregard planning methods for the sake of rapid reconstruction necessitated by the sudden return of former citizens or the influx of refugees from the North, who came in thousands after the conclusion of the Geneva Agreements.

4. The provincial administrative seats were organized until now as administrative centres and points of exchange of foreign imports and local commodities. They are not equipped for processing local raw materials.

5. In some cities like Saigon-Cholon and Dalat a clear dividing line has been established between residential sections and overcrowded slum areas.

/II. THE REMEDIES

II. THE REMEDIES

(A) Decentralization

The first target of a development policy should be to relocate economic activities and to stem the flow of all creative forces towards the cities; it should be endeavoured to revitalize areas, the resources of which are poorly utilized and which remain deserted in spite of their rich potential. Such areas are the High Tablelands of Kontum, Darlac, Langbiang, Tioma and the Plains of the Rushes and Camau. A number of small towns in these areas are destined to spread their economic influence and to receive refugees from the North and the homeless of the interior: Blao, Djiring, Dran, Fimmom, Budang, Poste Maitre, Banmethout, Poste du Lac, Pleikou, Kontum, An-Khe, Camau, Cai-San, Moc-Hoa.

(B) Creation of small-scale and cottage industries

In order to service an independent economy and balance the country's resources, it is necessary to create new fields of activity.

Big processing industries must be set up around large urban centres, whereas small satellite workshops will be centred on rural focal points--e.g. a large spinning mill and a workshop with a few looms; a machine plant and small forges for spare parts.

A number of Viet-Namese towns could offer ideal industrial locations, conveniently served by railways, roads and waterways, in close proximity to power transmission lines, and often quite near to raw material sources.

Thus, Can-Tho has all necessary prerequisites for becoming the centre of the Hau-Giang rice industry (Transbassac), Bien-Hoa would be an ideal centre for the rubber and timber industries; Phan-Thiet could grow into a fisheries processing town; Qui-Nhon could develop spinning mills, oil mills, soap factories, etc.,

(C) Revitalization of agriculture and handicraft

The revitalization of agriculture must keep pace with the expansion of industry. Both branches of the economy are interconnected and mutually dependent.

/Agricultural

Agricultural products, and more particularly, rice, maize and rubber are heading the export list and are consequently an important item of the country's economic potential.

It would be profitable to foster the growth of Tableland and Hau-Giang towns and to channel the population migration towards rice-fields or plantations, either by providing accommodation in new resettlement villages; or in rural towns, which should receive the necessary equipment for handicraft workshops and cottage industries producing oil, flour, sugar, fruit, mats, etc..., and which would provide work for the population during periods of seasonal unemployment between crops.

(D) Tourism and cultural development

Tourism should also play an important role in the resurgence of certain towns.

Dalat with its picturesque countryside and its forests; Huế with its palaces and royal tombs on the River of Scents are natural touristic attractions of national importance.

Hotels should be built for the middle and low income visitor without forgetting, at the same time, that luxury hotels are a profitable asset for towns attracting foreign tourists.

Cultural and intellectual activities should be developed concurrently with growing industrialization and utilization of natural resources. Towns like Huế, Tay-Ninh, Gia-Dinh, Thudaumot could become the seats of the country's intellectual and artistic life.

(E) The harnessing of the Danhim falls for an annual production of 745,000,000 kWh will result in the general electrification of the whole of South Viet-Nam and the installation of a whole complex of chemical industries in the vicinity of the falls. Low-cost electric power will also help to create in the High Tablelands a series of secondary industries (paper-mills, rayon manufactures, canned fruit industries, pine resin production, turpentine manufacture, etc.).

III. WAYS AND MEANS

(A) A general method should be applied liable to promote factors conducive to a more balanced organization of the country's development. To this end, the country will have to mobilize to the fullest extent its financial assets and the energy of its people, and hence the necessity:

To reorganize the public services;

To train technically qualified personnel;

To have recourse to foreign technical assistance in the form of loans;

To carry out a financial reform with a view to streamlining a legislation, the complexity and ponderousness of which greatly hinder the implementation of plans and the smooth functioning of executive departments;

To find a solution for problems having a bearing either on the Plan as a whole, or on one of its component parts, such as financing, investments, private savings and credit, public loans, Trade Unions, land reform, etc.

(B) Until now, the reconstruction of urban areas was financed exclusively by national, regional or communal budgets. The expenditure incurred in building roads and laying electric cables and water mains was paid out of public funds to the greater advantage of private owners who benefited from the increased value of their land, but without any favourable effect on the working classes who went on living in their overcrowded slum lanes.

The time has now come to draw up a more efficient legislation, ensuring the carrying out of urbanization plans without vast outlays of money which cannot be afforded by municipal budgets and reducing the cost of building sites. The following measures seem to meet the present difficulties:

(1) Simplification of expropriation procedures and replacement of expropriation panels by arbitration commissions;

(2) A road through parcel plots should be considered as a private road if it is used for parcelling up purposes;

(3) Compulsory consolidation of disjointed plots prior to construction work. Review of the entire Trade Union legislation. Land policy: use of commons for public purposes against payment to municipal authorities; special tax on waste land; slums legislation.

/ (C) Local conditions

(C) Local conditions should be fully taken into account for urban layouts:

(1) Appropriate selection of building sites: aerated high ground; non-cultivated sand dunes; dry and well drained State land;

(2) Avoid construction sites in:

(a) Flooded areas under rice cultivation (expensive earthwork; loss of land under food crops);

(b) Main river beds and some river banks, where building activities might interfere with the normal course of the flow;

(c) Insulubrious areas: Strong or hot winds; mosquito invested, harmfully damp and malarial areas.

(D) In the public sector, the most practicable layout methods are a matter of co-ordination between the competent administration and government authorities.

In the private sector, enforcement and taxation can force contractors to fall in line with urbanization programmes, but the concept of public interest should be widened, so as to enable the national and local authorities to undertake expropriations followed by retrocessions to private bodies or individuals whose plans may offer a contribution to public welfare.

The creation of a National Equipment Fund would ease financing difficulties and provide municipalities and local bodies with working capital for expropriations motivated by the increased value of a site, or its non-rational utilization; it would also provide the necessary means for zone-wide expropriation and the carrying out of land tenure policies.

CONCLUSIONS

A nation-wide territorial layout policy, which deals with the human element and resettlement problems differs from a production and industrial equipment plan, the objectives of which are purely quantitative and economic. At the same time, in its pursuit of social and human betterment, an improved territorial layout plan cannot fail to contribute to the raising of the general economic level of the country.

/Within the general

Within the general reconstruction framework, urban and rural centres are all important component parts and each of them should have an individual layout and expansion blueprint.

Thus, general urbanization programmes must be planned by competent bodies with a view to including the following:

(a) Rehabilitation and reconstruction of rural areas;

The master plan and the general territorial layout plans with their common background of geographical and demographic factors, will be a synthesis of all programmes relating to the national infrastructure administrative organization, development of public services, promotion of handicraft and agriculture, credit policy and social welfare activity.

(b) Rehabilitation and reconstruction of urban areas.

Territorial layout plans will seek the rational utilization of land and will become the general framework for layout and expansion plans drawn up for cities, towns and villages; in Viet-Nam, villages are densely grouped, and in view of their political importance, they are an integral part of the country's urbanization pattern.